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Reference Papers

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THE COMMONWEALTH

As self-government and independence were gradually assumed by the colonies within the British Empire, similarities of language, habits, institutional traditions, and working methods convinced many national representatives of the great value of maintaining some form of association in place of the old Empire. The fruit of that decision is the modern Commonwealth. The Commonwealth (or Commonwealth of Nations) is a voluntary association of 32 independent states from six continents and five oceans.(1) Bahamas is the most recent member (July 10, 1973). One other country, Nauru, is a special member, which participates fully, except in Heads of Government Meetings.

The Commonwealth, which embraces a marvellous diversity of races, languages, religions and cultures, is a unique association in which leaders in various fields may, on a level of informality and intimacy, forgather to exchange views on a multitude of questions and attempt to determine what may be usefully done together. In a world that seems in danger of splitting into antagonistic groups based on common interests such as ideology, race, region, economic level of development, or religion, the Commonwealth association possesses the unusual ability of being able to transcend group interests and so bring a global perspective to bear on matters of concern to all members.

The principles of the association were most eloquently expressed in the Commonwealth Declaration, issued at the Meeting of Commonwealth Heads of Government in Singapore in 1971.(2) This statement of common principles affirmed the belief of Commonwealth members in: the United Nations and its efforts to promote international peace and order; the liberty of the individual and each citizen's inalienable right to participate in framing the society in which he may live; the principles of human dignity and equality and the iniquities of colonial domination and racial oppression; the need for the progressive removal of disparities in wealth existing between different sections of mankind; and the value of the Commonwealth as a most useful means to promote international co-operation. In pursuing these principles the members of the Commonwealth believe that they can provide a constructive example of the multinational approach, which is vital to peace and progress in the modern world.

In a geographic sense, the term Commonwealth is understood to include self-governing states associated with a Commonwealth member for the purpose of foreign policy and defence, protectorates, protected states, trust territories administered by a member on behalf

(1) A list of members appears in Appendix A.

(2) The text of the Declaration appears as Appendix C.

of the United Nations and territories still dependent on a member. Including dependencies, the Commonwealth covers over one-fifth of the world's land surface and embraces well over 860 million people.

Of the 32 full members, 15 have retained a monarchical form of government. Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II is head of state of Canada and ten other members. Malaysia has as head of state a monarch elected for a five-year term from among their own members by the nine hereditary Malay rulers of West Malaysia. On attaining independence, two members of the Commonwealth, Lesotho and Swaziland, had their paramount chiefs declared king and head of state. The Kingdom of Tonga remained a monarchy after Britain relinquished its responsibility for the external affairs of this country in 1970. The 1962 constitution of Western Samoa provides for a head of state to be elected for a term of five years. It was decided, however, that two paramount chiefs should jointly hold the office of head of state for life (one died shortly thereafter). The functions of head of state are analogous to those of a constitutional monarch. Seventeen members of the association have adopted a republican form of government with a president as head of state, but all members of the Commonwealth recognize the British Sovereign as the symbol of their free association and, as such, the Head of the Commonwealth.

Associated States

Within the Commonwealth, the term "associated state" means a country that has attained full internal self-government and has formally assumed a status of association with one of the larger independent members, which becomes responsible for its external affairs and defence. The association is a free and voluntary one, terminable by either country at any time. In the Caribbean region, Antigua, St. Christopher-Nevis-Anguilla, Dominica, St. Lucia, St. Vincent and Grenada are in association with Britain, which retains ultimate responsibility for their external relations and defence. The six countries are known as the West Indies Associated States (WIAS) and, by agreement with Britain, exercise delegated authority over a wide area of external relations. Britain is also responsible for the external affairs of Brunei and co-operates in the arrangement of defence for this state, which is a sultanate on the north-west coast of Borneo. Southern Rhodesia, before unilateral declaration of independence on November 11, 1965, was a self-governing dependent territory of Britain. Following the illegal declaration of independence, the British Government passed the Southern Rhodesia Act 1965, which declares that Southern Rhodesia continues to be part of Her Majesty's dominions and that the Government and Parliament of Britain continue to have responsibility and jurisdiction for and in respect of it. The Cook Islands in the South Pacific enjoy full internal self-government, but have chosen to be associated with New Zealand.

Dependent Territories	In Commonwealth terminology, the phrase "dependent territories" includes some 30 remaining colonies, protectorates, protected states and trust territories. Most of these are dependencies of Britain; a few are dependent on Australia and New Zealand. Australia also administers Papua New Guinea as a United Nations trust territory.(3)
Evolution of the Commonwealth	The Commonwealth evolved from the British Empire by a gradual process that began in the nineteenth century. Many important developments first occurred in relation to what is now Canada. While there are many possible starting-points, a convenient one is <i>Lord Durham's Report</i> , published in 1839 following an inquiry into the causes of the rebellions in Upper and Lower Canada in 1836-37. One of Durham's key recommendations was that full self-government should be granted to the governments in the colonies in all matters of concern to them. Under the recommendations of the <i>Report</i> , authority was reserved to the Imperial Government only in those fields deemed necessary to maintain imperial unity; such functions included control of foreign relations, the regulation of commerce, the determination of the constitution and the disposal of public lands. All other powers and functions, including the expenditure of public funds, were to be transferred to the colonial governments to be administered by an executive council responsible to the elected legislative assembly and exercised only so long as they retained the support of a majority in the assembly. Following the Union of Upper and Lower Canada in 1840, this recommendation was implemented by stages during the next decade, the testing-point being the acceptance of the Rebellion Losses Bill of 1849 by Lord Elgin and by the British Government, which effectively established the practice of full responsible self-government over the very wide range of matters within the control of the governments in the colonies. Subsequently, the conception of responsible government with a wide area of local autonomy was widely applied throughout the British Empire; the changes flowing from general application of this conception have been immense.
	A second major development occurred over the period 1867-1939 as Canada came gradually to assume more and more responsibility for its relations with other countries and for its own defence. Out of the pressures, strains, persuasion and dialogue with Britain up to the Versailles Peace Conference at the end of the First World War and subsequently in the Twenties and Thirties, Canada, supported on occasion by Australia and the other Dominions, succeeded in asserting its independence from the Imperial power by a series of agreements and precedents that in turn became the basis for further political developments. Following the First World War, Canada and the other Dominions successfully asserted the claim to independent representation at conferences, beginning with Versailles,

- (3) A list of the more important remaining dependencies, showing their relations to a metropolitan power, area and population, appears as Appendix B.

and to diplomatic representation in foreign countries. The altered relation was registered by a communiqué from the Imperial Conference of 1926. Drawing upon the recommendations of the *Balfour Report*, the communiqué defined Britain and the Dominions as "autonomous Communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown, and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations". The Statute of Westminster of 1931 gave legal effect to the substance of the decisions reached in 1926 and established the legislative equality of the Dominion parliaments with the British Parliament.

The decisions of the Imperial Conference of 1926 also gave rise to another significant development in the character of relations between and among the Dominions. Since before the First World War, the Dominions had maintained high commissioners in London to present the views of their governments to the British authorities.(4) When the 1926 Conference decided that the governor-general in each of the Dominions would no longer be representative of the British Government but rather the King, these high commissioners became the intermediaries not only between the Dominion governments and Britain but also between the associates themselves. Accordingly, the most significant aspect of this role, which makes it different from that of an ambassador, is that high commissioners are accredited to heads of government rather than to heads of state. This practice has been maintained despite the decision of many Commonwealth countries not to retain the British monarch as their common head of state. Most Commonwealth countries have exchanged high commissioners between one another as well as with Britain.

In part as a result of developments in the Second World War, the movement toward independence in the then colonial areas of South and Southeast Asia became irresistible. On August 15, 1947, the Indian subcontinent was divided to create the two sovereign countries of India and Pakistan. A year later Ceylon (since 1972 Sri Lanka) achieved complete independence.

An important step in the evolution of the modern Commonwealth was taken soon after the birth of these countries. When the Government of India decided to become a republic yet remain within the Commonwealth, a common allegiance to the Crown was no longer a suitable criterion for membership in the association. The communiqué of the April 1949 prime ministers' meeting expressed a freshly-determined role for the British monarch within the Commonwealth -- that of a symbol of the free association of its independent member

(4) Canada appointed the first high commissioner to London in 1880.

nations and as such the head of the Commonwealth. This new definition enabled numerous states to continue as members of the Commonwealth without any strict uniformity of internal constitutions.

During the 1960s, membership in the Commonwealth increased tremendously as practically all the countries of Africa became independent and those which had been colonies of Britain decided to remain within the association. This development was crucial to the evolution of the Commonwealth, as it confirmed the non-racial character of the association. This point was perhaps most significantly registered at the prime ministers' meeting in London in March 1961, when Commonwealth representatives discussed, with the assent of the South African leader, racial policies within that country. Such a great number of representatives expressed their disapproval of the principles of *apartheid* contained in the new constitution of South Africa that the South African Prime Minister decided to reassess his Government's desire to remain within the Commonwealth and later withdrew from the association.

The issue of Rhodesia, with its racial overtones, has also been prominent within the association. The Commonwealth Sanctions Committee was established by heads of government at their meeting in Lagos in January 1966, *inter alia*, to review regularly the effect of sanctions and also the special needs which might from time to time arise in honouring the Commonwealth's undertaking to come to the support of Zambia as required. It met most recently February 19, 1973, following the closure of the border between Rhodesia and Zambia. The principle of racial equality was reaffirmed in numerous communiqués from the prime ministers' conferences and it assumes a conspicuous place in the Commonwealth Declaration issued by heads of government at Singapore in January 1971.

Throughout this metamorphosis of the Commonwealth, a number of countries have either withdrawn from the association or have chosen not to assume a place within it. The most recent member of the Commonwealth to have withdrawn is Pakistan, which severed its connection on January 30, 1972, over the impending recognition of Bangladesh by a number of Commonwealth countries. South Africa withdrew on May 31, 1961, after choosing to disassociate itself from the Commonwealth as it was then emerging. The Republic of Ireland left the association on April 18, 1949, owing to the strained relations between Britain and Ireland during the previous two decades. The Japanese conquest of Burma during the Second World War acted as a catalyst to accelerate the growing desire within that country to attain complete independence from Britain. Unwilling to remain within the Commonwealth association under the terms of the Balfour

Declaration, Burma chose to become an independent country outside the association on January 4, 1948.

Nature of Commonwealth Association

The essential functions of the Commonwealth can be stated simply in two words: consultation and co-operation. As expressed in the opening paragraph of the Commonwealth Declaration, Commonwealth governments consult and co-operate in the common interests of their peoples and in the promotion of international understanding and world peace.

Since the members come from all parts of the world, each with different responsibilities and interests and each pursuing policies it judges to be best suited to its interests, it is hardly surprising that agreement on a common course of action is seldom possible. The Commonwealth is not an international organization like the United Nations or the Organization of American States, with a charter and a structured hierarchy of councils and committees, reaching decisions on political and other international issues by formal resolution and majority votes. Nor does it have a continuing executive structure. In 1965, the Commonwealth Secretariat was established to assist Commonwealth governments in ensuring conditions for the frank exchange of opinions in a friendly, informal and intimate atmosphere. The Secretariat was given the following functions: to facilitate and promote consultation both bilaterally and multilaterally among members; to prepare and circulate factual papers on international questions of common concern to all Commonwealth governments; to act as a focal point and a link for various specialized Commonwealth agencies; to undertake studies on various subjects in the economic, social and cultural fields; and to service Commonwealth meetings.

Members have complete freedom to belong to any grouping, association or alliance or, of course, to remain non-aligned. Membership carries no obligation to come to the assistance of another member that may be attacked, though naturally Commonwealth countries would be seriously concerned about such a development. At an earlier stage, commerce was an important cohesive factor but, with natural processes of economic growth and the liberalization of trade on a multilateral basis following the Second World War, the Commonwealth preference system became relatively less significant. Commonwealth countries, particularly the more-developed nations, tended to diversify trade toward other areas. The significance of the Commonwealth preference system with regard to trade with Britain was, of course, affected by Britain's entry into the European Community on January 1, 1973.(5) On a broader scale, Commonwealth trade links

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- (5) While Britain's entry meant the termination of the Canada/United Kingdom Trade Agreement and the removal of Canadian preferential access to the British market, Canada has not yet altered British preferential access to the Canadian market. Canada, moreover, has renegotiated trade agreements with Australia and New Zealand that retain much of the preferential character.

remain important, particularly for the developing countries. Britain has engaged in efforts to assist developing countries in negotiating terms of association with the EEC which might well contribute to an increase in their economic prosperity.

The association has grown into a very useful vehicle for consultation at all levels. At the top level, the heads of government have of recent years inclined to a meeting every two years. Their meeting in Ottawa in August 1973 is the third to be held outside London, the others being in Lagos, Nigeria, in 1966 and Singapore in 1971. Apart from heads of government meetings, there have been numerous regular or periodic meetings of ministers and officials on functional matters and an almost continuous succession of meetings on a broad spectrum of international relations, including law, trade development assistance, education and youth matters. Through such consultations, the Commonwealth continues to act as an instrument for practical international co-operation along functional lines. Economic assistance for the less-developed members has long been a matter of concern. The Colombo Plan was a Commonwealth initiative arising from the consideration of the political and economic problems of South Asia by Commonwealth foreign ministers meeting in Colombo in January 1950. As the plan of assistance emerged in the first few months of 1950, a decision was taken to invite non-Commonwealth countries in the area to participate in the Plan. This was done to ensure economic progress throughout the whole of South and Southeast Asia. Development assistance programs for the Commonwealth countries in Africa and in the West Indies are further examples of the way in which economic assistance has been channeled bilaterally from the wealthier to the less-developed members. A further step toward practical co-operation for development was taken by heads of government at the Singapore conference of 1971 in their decision to expand the Commonwealth Program for Technical Co-operation by creating the Commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation, to which all members in a position to do so contribute for activities in the field of training and education.

The Commonwealth has been active in the field of education, where, under the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan, scholarships are awarded by 16 countries. Since the Plan was launched, over 5,000 awards have been granted throughout the Commonwealth. In a wider context, Commonwealth ministers concerned with youth matters met in Lusaka, Zambia, in January 1973 to complete a Youth Program designed to improve the lot of young people in member countries.

The Commonwealth Foundation was established at the 1965 prime ministers' meeting with the purpose of administering a fund for

fostering and increasing interchanges between Commonwealth organizations in professional fields throughout the Commonwealth. Funds for member governments are disbursed to encourage representation at conferences, to facilitate the exchange of visits among professional people, and to assist in organizing professional conferences. Recently the Foundation has been concentrating on encouraging the development of non-governmental associations in a number of newer professional fields.

All such programs(6) of mutually-beneficial action flow from consultation and co-operation at the highest level; indeed, the interchange of thoughts at the heads-of-government level permits the considerable degree of international co-operation evident today in the modern Commonwealth. Yet the tremendous growth in the number of independent nations participating in the Commonwealth has posed a difficult problem within the association; informality and intimacy, long characteristic of Commonwealth heads of government meetings, were becoming more and more difficult to maintain. It was feared that, in an atmosphere of reduced familiarity and the growing importance of regional or interest groupings, discussion of such problems of a world-wide nature as economic disparities might well serve only to bring out differences among members and precipitate acrimonious debate, with few constructive results. Therefore, at Singapore in 1971, Commonwealth heads of government welcomed the suggestion that their senior officials meet to study the loss of informality in executive meetings and to recommend means by which informality and flexibility could be restored. They also welcomed the Canadian suggestion to direct senior officials to prepare for their discussion a subject of practical concern to all heads of government -- comparative techniques of government. Senior officials met for fruitful discussions in Ottawa in October 1972 and formulated proposals on both subjects for consideration by heads of government in advance of their 1973 meeting in Ottawa from August 2 to 10, 1973.

(6) In addition to the joint undertaking by member governments of these official programs, there is a wide variety of Commonwealth organizations (more than 200) constructively active in the non-governmental field.

Appendix A

Commonwealth Countries

Note: Members of the Commonwealth (or Commonwealth of Nations) include Britain and those independent countries formerly governed by Britain which have chosen to become members. Dependent territories such as colonies, protectorates and trust territories of Britain and other member countries may be described as within the Commonwealth in that they are territories of member countries, but they are not "members" of the Commonwealth, for only sovereign independent states are accepted as such. Nauru, which became independent in January 1968, is associated with the Commonwealth as a special member entitled to participate in all functional meetings and activities and is eligible for Commonwealth technical assistance, but does not take part in meetings of Commonwealth heads of government. The prefix "British" before "Commonwealth" is no longer used. (* Denotes the date on which dominion status was acquired.)

<u>Member Countries</u>	<u>Population</u>	<u>Date of Membership</u>	<u>Capital</u>	<u>Constitutional Status</u> (Monarchy or Republic)	<u>Accredited Canadian Post</u> (H.C. - High Commission) (Emb. - Embassy)
Australia	12,881,100	1 January 1901*	Canberra	M (Br.)	H.C. - Canberra
Bahamas	168,812	10 July 1973	Nassau	M (Br.)	H.C. - Kingston
Bangladesh	75,000,000	18 April 1972	Dacca	R	H.C. - Dacca
Barbados	238,000	30 November 1966	Bridgetown	M (Br.)	H.C. - Port of Spain
Botswana	625,900	30 September 1966	Gaborone	R	Emb. - Pretoria
Britain	55,534,000		London	M (Br.)	H.C. - London
Canada	22,000,000	1 July 1867*	Ottawa	M (Br.)	Emb. - Tel Aviv
Cyprus	640,000	13 March 1961	Nicosia	R	H.C. - Canberra
Fiji	524,500	10 October 1970	Suva	M (Br.)	Emb. - Dakar
The Gambia	320,000	18 February 1965	Banjul (Bathurst)	R	H.C. - Accra
Ghana	8,500,000	6 March 1957	Accra	R	H.C. - Georgetown
Guyana	714,000	26 May 1966	Georgetown	R	H.C. - New Delhi
India	546,955,900	15 August 1947	New Delhi	R	H.C. - Kingston
Jamaica	1,861,300	6 August 1962	Kingston	M (Br.)	H.C. - Nairobi
Kenya	11,247,000	12 December 1963	Nairobi	R	Emb. - Pretoria
Lesotho	1,000,000	4 October 1966	Maseru	M (Nat'l)	H.C. - Lusaka
Malawi	4,312,400	6 July 1964	Lilongwe	R	H.C. - Kuala Lumpur
Malaysia	10,434,000	31 August 1957	Kuala Lumpur	M (Nat'l)	

Malta	322,300	21 September 1964	Valletta	M (Br.)
Mauritius	854,000	12 March 1968	Port Louis	M (Br.)
Nauru	6,600	31 January 1968	Nauru	R
(special member)				
New Zealand	2,860,500	26 September 1967*	Wellington	M (Br.)
Nigeria	60,000,000	1 October 1960	Lagos	R
Sierra Leone	2,183,000	27 April 1961	Freetown	R
Singapore	2,110,400	15 October 1965	Singapore	R
Sri Lanka (Ceylon)	12,747,800	4 February 1948	Colombo	R
Swaziland	420,000	6 September 1968	Mbabane	M (Nat'l)
Tanzania	12,231,300	9 December 1961	Dar-es-Salaam	R
Tonga	89,900	4 June 1970	Nuku'alofa	M (Nat'l)
Trinidad and Tobago	1,128,800	31 August 1962	Port of Spain	M (Br.)
Uganda	9,548,800	9 October 1962	Kampala	R
Western Samoa	143,500	28 August 1970	Apia	R
Zambia	<u>4,057,000</u>	24 October 1964	Lusaka	R
Total		861,661,000		
				Emb. - Rome H.C. - Dar-es-Salaam
				H.C. - Wellington H.C. - Lagos H.C. - Lagos H.C. - Singapore H.C. - Colombo
				H.C. - Pretoria H.C. - Dar-es-Salaam H.C. - Wellington H.C. - Port of Spain H.C. - Nairobi H.C. - Wellington H.C. - Lusaka

Appendix B

Dependent Territories

<u>Dependent Territory</u>	<u>Dependency of</u>	<u>Sq. Miles</u>	<u>Population</u>
Bermuda	Britain	20.59	53,000
British Antarctic Territory	Britain	(approx) 500,000	100
British Honduras	Britain	8,866	119,863
British Indian Ocean Territory	Britain	21,000	550
British Virgin Islands	Britain	59	10,484
Cayman Islands	Britain	100	10,249
Falkland Islands and Dependencies	Britain	4,700	2,066
Gibraltar	Britain	2.25	26,833
Hong Kong	Britain	398.5	3,950,802
Montserrat	Britain	39.5	12,300
Pitcairn Island	Britain	1.75	100
St. Helena	Britain	47	4,952
Ascension	Britain	34	1,232
Tristan da Cunha	Britain	38	280
Seychelles	Britain	107	52,811
Turks and Caicos Islands	Britain	166	5,675
British Solomon Islands Protectorate	Britain	11,500	160,998
New Hebrides	Administered as Anglo-French Condominium	5,700	81,000
Gilbert and Ellice Islands	Britain	283	53,517
Norfolk Island	Australia	13.35	1,509
Australian Antarctic Territory	Australia	2,333,624	---
Heard Island and McDonald Islands	Australia	Unavailable	---
Cocos (Keeling) Islands	Australia	5.5	622
Christmas Islands	Australia	52	3,524
Papua New Guinea	Australia	178,260	2,298,268
Ross Dependency	New Zealand	160,000	---
Niue	New Zealand	100	5,183
Tokelau Islands	New Zealand	3.9	1,687



Commonwealth Declaration

The Commonwealth of Nations is a voluntary association of independent sovereign states, each responsible for its own policies, consulting and co-operating in the common interests of their peoples and in the promotion of international understanding and world peace.

Members of the Commonwealth come from territories in the six continents and five oceans, include peoples of different races, languages and religions, and display every stage of economic development from poor developing nations to wealthy industrialized nations. They encompass a rich variety of cultures, traditions and institutions. Membership of the Commonwealth is compatible with the freedom of member governments to be non-aligned or to belong to any other grouping, association or alliance.

Within this diversity all members of the Commonwealth hold certain principles in common. It is by pursuing these principles that the Commonwealth can continue to influence international society for the benefit of mankind.

WE BELIEVE that international peace and order are essential to the security and prosperity of mankind; we therefore support the United Nations and seek to strengthen its influence for peace in the world, and its efforts to remove the causes of tension between nations.

WE BELIEVE in the liberty of the individual, in equal rights for all citizens regardless of race, colour, creed or political belief, and in their inalienable right to participate by means of free and democratic political processes in framing the society in which they live. We therefore strive to promote in each of our countries those representative institutions and guarantees for personal freedom under the law that are our common heritage.

WE RECOGNIZE racial prejudice as a dangerous sickness threatening the healthy development of the human race and racial discrimination as an unmitigated evil of society. Each of us will vigorously combat this evil within our own nation. No country will afford to regimes which practise racial discrimination assistance which in its own judgment directly contributes to the pursuit or consolidation of this evil policy. We oppose all forms of colonial domination and racial oppression and are committed to the principles of human dignity and equality. We will therefore use all our efforts to foster human equality and dignity everywhere and to further the principles of self-determination and non-racialism.

WE BELIEVE that the wide disparities in wealth now existing between different sections of mankind are too great to be

tolerated; they also create world tensions; our aim is their progressive removal; we therefore seek to use our efforts to overcome poverty, ignorance and disease, in raising standards of life and achieving a more equitable international society. To this end our aim is to achieve the freest possible flow of international trade on terms fair and equitable to all, taking into account the special requirements of the developing countries, and to encourage the flow of adequate resources, including governmental and private resources, to the developing countries, bearing in mind the importance of doing this in a true spirit of partnership and of establishing for this purpose in the developing countries conditions which are conducive to sustained investment and growth.

WE BELIEVE that international co-operation is essential to remove the causes of war, promote tolerance, combat injustice and secure development amongst the peoples of the world; we are convinced that the Commonwealth is one of the most fruitful associations for these purposes.

In pursuing these principles the members of the Commonwealth believe that they can provide a constructive example of the multi-national approach which is vital to peace and progress in the modern world. The association is based on consultation, discussion and co-operation. In rejecting coercion as an instrument of policy they recognise that the security of each member state from external aggression is a matter of concern to all members. It provides many channels for continuing exchanges of knowledge and views on professional, cultural, economic, legal and political issues among member states. These relationships we intend to foster and extend for we believe that our multi-national association can expand human understanding and understanding among nations, assist in the elimination of discrimination based on differences of race, colour or creed, maintain and strengthen personal liberty, contribute to the enrichment of life for all, and provide a powerful influence for peace among nations.

Appendix D

Some Commonwealth Conferences from 1971

1971

January	Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting 4th Quinquennial Commonwealth Law Conference	Singapore New Delhi
February	5th Commonwealth Education Conference	Canberra
May	20th Parliamentary Seminar of the Commonwealth Parliamentary Association	London
	Meeting of Commonwealth Health Ministers and Officials Prior to the Annual World Health Assembly	Geneva
June	Commonwealth Engineering Conference	London
July	3rd Quinquennial Conference of the Commonwealth Council of the Royal Life Saving Society	London
	Commonwealth Asian and Pacific Countries Regional Seminar on Youth	Kuala Lumpur
August	Commonwealth Survey Officers' Conference	Cambridge
	Annual Conference of the Commonwealth Parliamentary Association	Kuala Lumpur
September	Commonwealth Librarians' Conference	London
	Commonwealth Finance Ministers' Meeting (Annual)	Nassau
October	Conference of Commonwealth Postal Administrations	London
	Conference on Consular Relations in the Common- wealth	London
	Commonwealth Information Officials Conference	London
November	3rd Commonwealth Medical Conference	Port Louis
	Commonwealth Youth Officials Conference	London

1972

February	Meeting of Board of Trustees of the Commonwealth Foundation	London
March	6th Annual General Meeting of the Association of Commonwealth Teachers	London
May	Meeting of Commonwealth Ministers and Officials Prior to the World Health Assembly	Geneva
	2nd National Conference on Commonwealth Youth Exchange	London
	Commonwealth Parliamentary Association: 4th African Regional Conference	Bathurst
	Council of the Association of Commonwealth Universities met in Canada at Trent, Carleton, and Laval Universities	
	Conference on Consular Relations within the Commonwealth	London
June	Conference of Chief Commissioners of the Girl Guides Association in the Commonwealth	Kingston (Jamaica)
	10th Commonwealth Defence Conference on Operational Clothing and Combat Equipment	Kingston (Canada)
	25th Congress of the Federation of the Commonwealth Chambers of Commerce	London
	40th Annual Conference of the Commonwealth Countries League	London
	2nd Commonwealth Magistrates' Conference	Bermuda
July	Commonwealth Parliamentary Association: 9th Caribbean Regional Conference	St. Lucia
	2nd Meeting of Commonwealth Officials to Discuss Future Relations with EEC	London
August	Inaugural Meeting of Provisional Council for Post-Graduate Medical Education in Commonwealth West African countries	Lagos
	Commonwealth Conference of Teachers Organizations	Cambridge

	Meeting of Commonwealth Committee on Mineral Resources and Geology	Montreal
	International Entomological Conference (Commonwealth participation financed by Commonwealth Foundation)	Canberra
	Commonwealth Parliamentary Association: 13th Canadian Regional Conference	Winnipeg
	8th Meeting of the Commonwealth Air Transport Council	London
September	Meeting of Commonwealth Finance Ministers	London
	6th Council Meeting of Commonwealth Medical Association	Accra
	8th Conference of Commonwealth Auditors-General	London
October	9th Commonwealth Broadcasting Conference	Nairobi
	Commonwealth Senior Officials Meeting	Ottawa
	7th Biennial Meeting of Commonwealth Scientific Committee	Canberra
	Annual Meeting of Executive Committee of Commonwealth Association of Architects	Nicosia
	Meeting of Heads of Government of Commonwealth Caribbean Countries	Port of Spain
	18th Commonwealth Parliamentary Conference	Blantyre
November	Commonwealth Telecommunications Conference	Ottawa
	8th and 9th Meetings of the London Committee of the 20 "Associable" Countries to Continue Consultation on the Approach to the 1973 Negotiations with the EEC	London
	Inaugural Meeting of the Council of the Association of Commonwealth Librarians	Lagos
<u>1973</u>		
January	Commonwealth Law Ministers' Meeting	London

	Meeting of Commonwealth Ministers Concerned with Youth Matters	Lusaka
February	League for the Exchange of Commonwealth Teachers: Conference for Exchange Teachers	London
	Commonwealth Sanctions Committee (Regular)	London
	Commonwealth Association of Architects: Asian Regional Conference	Ahmedabad (India)
April	Commonwealth Metrication Conference	London
	Commonwealth Conference on Teacher Education	Nairobi
May	Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux: Interim Review Conference	London
	Meeting of Commonwealth Delegates to Annual World Health Assembly	Geneva
June	Meeting of the Board of Trustees of the Common- wealth Foundation	London
August	Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting	Ottawa
	11th Quinquennial Congress of the Association of Commonwealth Universities	Edinburgh
	3rd Commonwealth Magistrates' Conference	Nairobi
	Commonwealth Parliamentary Association: 12th Australian Regional Conference	Melbourne
September	Seminar on Deafness organized by the Common- wealth Society for the Deaf	Port of Spain
	19th Commonwealth Parliamentary Conference	London
	Commonwealth Engineering Conference	Not yet determined (either in London or in Canada)
	Meeting of Commonwealth Finance Ministers and Officials	Dar-es-Salaam
October	6th Biennial Conference of Royal Agricultural Society of the Commonwealth	Christchurch

2nd Conference of Commonwealth Postal
Administrations

Port of Spain

November

Commonwealth Association of Architects
Conference

Ottawa

1980-1981
Theatre Department
University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee

Directed by Michael J. Flanagan
Associate Director: John C. Gandy

Commonwealth Conferences

Colonial Conferences

1887	London	April 4 - May 9
1894	Ottawa	June 28 - July 9
1897	London	June 24 - July 31
1902	London	June 30 - August 11
1907	London	April 15 - May 14

Imperial Conferences

1911	London	May 23 - June 20
1915		did not take place
1917	London	April 21 - April 27
1921	London	June 20 - August 5
1923	London	October 1 - November 8
1926	London	October 19 - November 23
1930	London	October 1 - November 14
1932	Ottawa	July 21 - August 20 (Imperial Economic Conference)
1937	London	May 14 - June 15

Prime Ministers Meetings

1944	London	May 1 - May 17
1946	London	May 1 - May 23
1948	London	October 10 - October 22
1949	London	April 21 - April 27
1951	London	January 4 - January 12
1953	London	June 3 - June 9
1955	London	January 31 - February 8
1956	London	June 27 - July 6
1957	London	June 26 - July 5
1960	London	May 3 - May 13
1961	London	March 8 - March 17
1962	London	September 10 - September 19
1964	London	July 8 - July 15
1965	London	June 17 - June 21
1966	Lagos	January 11 - January 12
1966	London	September 6 - September 15
1969	London	January 7 - January 15

Heads of Government Meetings

1971	Singapore	January 14 - January 22
1973	Ottawa	August 2 - August 10

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